

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ
ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение
высшего профессионального образования
«Казанский (Приволжский) федеральный университет»
Институт филологии и межкультурной коммуникации
Кафедра германской филологии

Елена Юрьевна Семушина
Социолингвистика
Конспект лекций

Казань - 2014

Шифр и название направления подготовки: 032700.62 Филология

Уровень образования: бакалавриат

Форма обучения: очная

Учебный план: «Зарубежная филология: английский язык и литература (очное, 2013)

Дисциплина: БЗ.ДВ.1. Социоллингвистика, курс 2, форма отчетности – зачет

Общее количество часов: 72 ч. (в том числе: лекции – 18, самостоятельная работа – 54), форма контроля - зачет

Аннотация: Курс посвящен изучению общественной обусловленности возникновения, развития и функционирования языка, воздействия общества на язык и языка на общество. Дисциплина исследует следующие аспекты: функции и формы существования языка, язык и культура, религия, пол, языковая политика и биллингвизм. Курс читается на английском языке.

Темы: 1. Язык и общество. 2. Функции языка. 3. Основные формы языка. 4. Социоллингвистические аспекты языка. 5. Гендерные аспекты языка. 6. Язык и особенности культуры. 7. Выбор языка. 8. Языковая политика. 9. Проблемы биллингвизма в Татарстане. 10. Языковая эволюция

Ключевые слова: язык и общество, биллингвизм, социоллингвистические аспекты, формы языка

Автор курса: Семушина Елена Юрьевна, доцент кафедры германской филологии, кандидат филологических наук, email: epospelova@yahoo.com

Дата начала эксплуатации: 1 марта 2014 года

URL: <http://zilant.kfu.ru/course/view.php?id=17366>

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Тема 1. Language and society

Лекция 1

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматривается взаимосвязь языка и общества, понятие социолингвистики как науки и методы исследования.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Language, society and reality
- 2) Sociolinguistics and the methods of the science

Ключевые слова: language, society, communicative competence, sociolinguistics, methods.

Глоссарий

Communicative competence - the conventions the members of speech community share about their speech variety

Macro-sociolinguistics – a branch of science, which takes society as its starting point and deals with language as a pivotal factor in the organization of communities

Micro-sociolinguistics - – a branch of science, which begins with language and treats social forces as essential factors influencing the structure of languages

Situational analysis – special method of sociolinguistic analysis, which is aimed at planning the speech according to certain rules.

Sociolinguistics - a branch of linguistics, which is devoted to social conventionality of developing and functioning of the language

Speech community - a social group who claim a variety as their own and maintain its distinctiveness from the varieties spoken by their neighbours

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Language, society and reality

The very existence of languages critically depends on the availability of a social group who claim a variety as their own and maintain its distinctiveness from the varieties spoken by their neighbours. Such a group can be called a "speech community" and the conventions they share about their speech variety can be called "communicative competence". A speech community is not necessarily coextensive with a language community. A speech community is a group of people who do not necessarily share the same language, but share a set of norms and rules for the use of language. The boundaries between speech communities are essentially social rather than linguistic.

For instance, in Papua New Guinea people pay great attention to small linguistic differences in differentiating themselves from their neighbours. People in one village or clan insist they speak a different language from the next village, although there is often a high degree of mutual intelligibility between them.

Patterns of social interaction often transcend language boundaries. In some bilingual Gaelic/English communities in Scotland, speakers who have only a receptive competence in Scottish Gaelic nevertheless are able to share in

conversations with more fluent speakers. They have what we can call "communicative competence" even though their grammatical competence in Gaelic is weak. Conversely sharing a grammar does not necessarily entail that communication will be successful. Speakers who speak the same language do not always understand each other because they do not necessarily share the same conventions for interpreting each other's speech or use speech in the same way.

For example, talking about the weather is a stereotype associated with speakers of British rather than American English. The reason is the changeability and unpleasant nature of the climate. More important however, is that the weather is a safe, impersonal topic that can be discussed between two strangers who want to be not too friendly. A common British stereotype about Americans is that they show too much familiarity with strangers and ask personal questions which are perceived as unwelcome intrusions. Americans, however, say they are simply showing interest. Thus social knowledge is essential for membership in speech community.

So, the term "communicative competence" is used to refer to a speaker's underlying knowledge of the rules of grammar (in the widest sense) and rules for their use in socially appropriate circumstances.

There are probably not any speech communities in which aspects of society have no impact on language. All languages give names to concepts of cultural importance and mark certain conceptual categories in their grammars (differences between male and female, one and more than one). To take what is the most often - mentioned case, we can note the existence of several words in Eskimo languages to refer to "snow" compared to only one basic one in English. Snow is important to the Eskimo, while to most English speakers, the precise state of snow is not very important.

Categorization of the world by language is an ongoing social activity since new things have to be named. Conversely, in some cultures, when a person dies, his/her name and similar - sounding words may be tabooed, so new words have to be coined or borrowed. Categorization also has a cultural basis, and items which are characterized as similar in one culture may not be seen as such in another.

A useful way of conceptualizing differences between languages is to think of them as varying not so much in what it is possible to say, as what it is unavoidable to say. Although English is a relatively impoverished language by comparison with others such as Japanese in terms of the social distinctions that have to be expressed in its grammar, the grammars of other languages are much more permeable to society, as can be seen by looking at Japanese, where the concept of self depends on social relations. While in English, speakers can usually refer to themselves as "I", in Japanese there are four pronouns, depending on formality of the occasion and the status of one's interlocutor. English encodes other social distinctions such as gender in its third person pronouns (*he/she, her/him*).

The world is not simply the way it is, but what we make it through language. The domains of experience which are important to cultures get grammaticalized into languages. Grammaticalized concepts are more fundamental than concepts associated with words (lexical items). Our understanding of these concepts contributes to our view of cognitive categories. Meaning is affected by our understanding of a situation (A word - "work". In the dictionary we have: physical or mental effort or activity directed towards the production or accomplishment of something, employment, a job; the means by which one earns one's living. How does mowing the lawn fit into these definitions? When a person working at home - it is not considered "work")

Sociolinguistics and the methods of the science

The term sociolinguistics was coined in the 1950s to try to bring together the perspectives of linguists and sociolinguists to bear on issues concerning the place of language in society. Although it is a young field of research, it gathered momentum in the 1960s and 1970s and continues to do so today. Sociolinguistics has close connections with the social sciences, in particular, sociology, anthropology, social psychology, and education. It encompasses the study of multilingualism, social dialects, conversational interaction, attitudes to language, language change.

Different authors writing about what has now become a very broad field have divided it up in various ways. Some distinguish, for instance, between theoretical and applied sociolinguistics. The former is concerned with formal models and methods

for analyzing the structure of speech communities and speech varieties, and providing a general account of communicative competence. Applied sociolinguistics deals with the social and political implications of fundamental inequalities in language use in various areas of public life, for example schools, courts.

More often, however, the field is subdivided into two broad headings: macro - and micro - sociolinguistics. Macro - takes society as its starting point and deals with language as a pivotal factor in the organization of communities. Micro - sociolinguistics begins with language and treats social forces as essential factors influencing the structure of languages.

Sociolinguistics – a branch of linguistics, which is devoted to social conventionality of developing and functioning of the language.

Methods of sociolinguistics:

- 1) Methods used collecting material
 - a) Observation.
 - в) Questionnaire
 - c) Interview
 - d) Analysis of documents
 - e) Experiment
- 2) Methods of sociolinguistic analysis
 - a) Statistic methods
 - б) Special methods – situational analysis.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) What is speech community?
- 2) Which traits characterize speech competence of a person?
- 3) What impact does the language have on mentality?
- 4) What is sociolinguistics?
- 5) Which methods are used in sociolinguistics?

Тема 2. Functions of the language

Лекция 2

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются основные функции языка, своеобразие языка как явления.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Peculiarity of language as social phenomenon
- 2) Functions of the language

Ключевые слова: language, society, communicative competence, sociolinguistics, methods.

Глоссарий

Aesthetic function - aesthetic attitude to the language.

Cognitive function - the language preserves and transfers the information.

Communicative function – language is a means of communication.

Contact-making function - the language is used only to make a contact.

Emotional function - presentation of emotions in the speech.

Regulative function - regulation of behavior of the listener.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Peculiarity of language as social phenomenon

The language is different from other social phenomenon because:

- a) language, mentality and social character of work are interconnected and considered the basis of human-being peculiarity as a biological species
- b) language is obligatory for society as condition of society existence
- c) language is a part of spiritual culture, form of social consciousness
- d) language identifies the unity of the nation and isn't an ideological form of consciousness

So, peculiarity of the language as social phenomenon can be based on 2 points: universality of the language as a means of communication; the language is a means of communication, not an aim or context.

Functions of the language

The language has the following functions:

- 1) Communicative function – language is a means of communication

You can address a human-being, animal with the help of the language. A sender and addressee can be separated by time and place. As for the content of the report, it can include information which can be passed in communicative act.

- 2) Cognitive function – the language preserves and transfers the information

The language can preserve information in two spheres: in the language itself and in reports (oral or written). Information found in dictionaries is more stable than in texts.

- 3) Regulative function – regulation of behavior of the listener

Depending on the aim the following classes of speech acts are defined: question, prohibition, request, inducement, order, warning, advice, report

4) Emotional function – presentation of emotions in the speech

This function prevails in patterns where subjective attitude is obvious. Emotions can be expressed with the help of intonation, interjection, words with expressive connotation.

5) Contact-making function – the language is used only to make a contact, the information is of no importance (talk about weather, greetings, congratulations)

6) Speech commentary – explanation of the meaning.

The function is important when we come across linguistic problems in communication. Here speakers can estimate the word, its position. The means of speech commentary are the following: “inserted comments” on the speech, all lexical and grammatical means used to speak about language.

7) Aesthetic function – aesthetic attitude to the language can be found when a person pays attention to the text itself. This function is obvious in belles-lettres and usually deals with structures of texts which are changed in the sphere of language to achieve some aesthetic aim. These changes can be found in vocabulary and grammatical semantics (metaphor); in syntactic structure (expressive syntax); sound structure (rhythm, rhyme).

8) Ethnic (national) function

The function is symbolic and is created through attitude of a nation to the language.

9) Magic function – taboos, prayers, swears.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Why is the language different from other social phenomenon?
- 2) Name the functions of the language.
- 3) Which function is the most important?
- 4) What is the result of use of the regulative function?
- 5) Give examples of realization of the contact-making function.

Тема 3. The main forms of the language

Лекция 3

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются основные формы языка, литературный язык, территориальный диалект, пиджин и креольский язык.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) The form of the language
- 2) Literary language
- 3) Territorial dialects
- 4) Pidgin and creole languages

Ключевые слова: form of the language, territory, dialect, literary, pidgin, creole languages.

Глоссарий

American English – a variant of the British English used in the USA.

Creole language – the language that comes from Pidgin and has its own native speakers.

Lexifier language – the language from which the bulk of lexicon is taken when Pidgin is formed.

Literary language – the language that is characterized by the following features: worked out, fixed, stable, compulsory for the nation.

Pidgin - a kind of mixed language, which appears when people have a necessity to communicate and they have different native language.

Territorial dialect – a form of the language limited in territory.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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The form of the language

The main indication of any norm – existence of so-called “linguistic ideal”. There are “frontier zones” between some norms where we come across interpretation and interaction.

The system of regular interconnected variants of linguistic possibilities is named “form of language”. Forms are different from each other in the sphere of linguistic means, social status, a degree of standardization.

Literary language

Literary language has the following indications:

- 1) It is worked out
- 2) It is fixed
- 3) It is stable
- 4) It is compulsory
- 5) It has differentiations in styles
- 6) It has the leading role among all styles
- 7) It has two forms: written and oral

There are several differences between literary and other forms of language:

- 1) Literary language appears as over-dialectal form, used by educated people.
- 2) Literary language is the most prestigious among other forms of language.

- 3) "Linguistic idea" here is recognized by the society. Norms are fixed in special books
- 4) Literary language is the least influenced by other forms of languages.
- 5) It is characterized by doing away with non-functional variations (duplicates).

Territorial dialects

Dialect is a form of language, which can be characterized in the following way:

- 1) It has small stylistic variety.
- 2) It is limited in territory.
- 3) It is used in every-day life.
- 4) It doesn't have fixed rules.
- 5) It is subordinate to literary language.

A "regional dialect" is a variety associated with a place. The study of dialects has to do with boundaries, which often coincide with geographical features such as rivers and mountains. Boundaries are, however, often of social nature. There is a dictum: a language is a dialect with an army and a navy. In China, a range of mutual unintelligible varieties which a linguist would call separate languages are considered dialects of Chinese because they are linked by a common writing system. This is really in a sense the opposite of what exists in Scandinavia where differences in writing obscure basic similarities in pronunciation.

Whether American English is a dialect of English or a separate language depends on your point of view. George Bernard Shaw characterized England and America as two nations divided by a common language. When H.L. Mencken decided to call his book *The American Language* rather than *The English Language in America*, he was making a political statement. A dialect varies from other dialects of the same language simultaneously on at least three levels of organization: pronunciation, grammar or syntax, and vocabulary. Thus, educated speakers of American English and British English can be regarded as using dialects of the same language because differences of these three kinds exist between them. (An accent consists of a way of pronouncing a variety)

America's linguistic declaration of independence was unparalleled in Australia until the appearance of Sydney Baker's book *The Australian language* (1945), whose title confidently asserted the autonomy of Australian English in the same way that Mencken's had attempted to do for American English. Still, it was a long time before many Australians were to feel confident about sounding Australian, and many still do not today. Since 1983 Australians who sound distinctly Australian can be heard on radio and television and all questions concerning pronunciation, style and usage are referred to an Australian dictionary, not a British one.

It also possible to trace the transference of patterns from Britain to the United States. The prevailing opinion was that American English was essentially Southern Standard English of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries as modified locally. Research demonstrated that most of the dialect differences in the United States had their basis partly in regional varieties of British English, which earlier settlers brought with them. There is linguistic evidence for a historical connection between American speech of the north and west and that of northern England, and to some extent the south and the pronunciation of southern England.

Before Irish immigration to the US, the population of eastern New England came from the south - eastern counties of England, where varieties closest to RP are spoken (RP lacks post-vocalic r). Western New England, on the other hand, had a large number of Scots-Irish, whose dialects have post-vocalic r. Thus, non-rhotic speech was typical of coastal areas and rhotic speech of inland areas. This was true not only for reasons having to do with settlement areas but for cultural reasons too. The coastal areas kept non - rhotic speech because the elite classes there were in touch with English prestige patterns of speaking. The population of the Mid Atlantic states was mixed. Because of Quaker settlement, Philadelphia was an exception to the port pattern of non-rhotic speech. The Quakers attracted immigrants from all parts of Britain and the rest of Europe. They maintained less trade with Britain and sent fewer children back to English Universities. The Southern planters often had their children educated in England or imported English tutors. Since the Second World War, however, rhotic speech has become more prestigious in the US.

Pidgin and Creole Languages

Pidgin – a kind of mixed language, which appears when people have a necessity to communicate and they have different native language. The language isn't native and is used in certain situations. Creole has its own native speakers, it comes from pidgin and becomes a new language with its own vocabulary and grammar.

Pidgin and Creole languages are spoken mainly in Third World countries. There are more than a hundred pidgin and Creole languages in daily use around the world. Those based on English are more numerous than those based on any other language, attesting to the greater spread of English than any other metropolitan language. The next largest group is based on French, and a much smaller number based on non – European languages. The term “based” means that the bulk of the lexicon is drawn from that language, while the grammatical structure typically shows influence from other (usually non-European) languages. It is customary practice to label pidgins and Creoles with a formula which includes their location and their principal lexifier language^ Chinese Pidgin English.

Two major groups of languages, the Atlantic and the Pacific, are recognized according to historical, geographic, and linguistic factors. The Atlantic group was established primarily during the 17th and 18th centuries in the Caribbean and West Africa, while the Pacific group originated primarily in 19th. The Atlantic Creoles were largely products of the slave trade in West Africa, which dispersed large numbers of West Africans to the Caribbean. Varieties of Caribbean Creoles have also been transplanted to the United Kingdom by West Indian immigrants. In the Pacific laborers were recruited and indentured rather than slaves. There was some interaction between Atlantic and Pacific (sailors).

Most pidgins and Creoles tend to have a simple syllable structure consisting of consonants and vowels. The boundary between pidgin and Creoles can not be defined as purely linguistic terms. Some languages can exist in both pidgin and Creole forms. Creolization can take place at any point during the pidgin's life cycle, ranging from a jargon to an expanded pidgin. The term “jargon” refers to a speech variety with a

minimal linguistic system and great individual variation used for communicating in limited situations between speakers of different languages (trade).

Most of the grammatical features commonly found in European languages are lost here (gender, case). Pidgins and creoles also have few prepositions. Other grammatical distinctions lacking in pidgins appear to be more essential to the adequate functioning of language and will be reconstituted as part of the process of creolization. Lexical forms will usually be recruited from the superstrate language to perform these functions. Thus, for English – based Creoles the indefinite article is usually derived from the numeral *one*, as in Hawai'i Creole English *I got one dog – I have a dog*, a future maker from a verb meaning *go*: *I go leave om outside for you – I will leave it outside for you*. Question words are usually composed of two elements, Guyanese Creole *wisaid* (*which side*). Among the grammatical features we can come across lack of forms of the verb 'to be'. Pidgin grammars tend to be shallow with no syntactic devices for subordination or embedding? Most Creoles lack passive and follow subject – verb – object word order. Each Creole language tends to have 3 tense markers: one to mark anterior tense (past), one to mark irrealis (future and conditional), one to mark non – punctual speech (progressive and habitual).

As far as the content of the lexical items in pidgin and Creole languages is concerned, at least 2 general points can be made. One is the common existence of nautical element, another is the presence of common core of items shared across unrelated pidgins and Creoles. Pidgins and Creoles generally take at least 80 % or more of their lexicon from superstrate language. Usually the vocabulary varies from about 300 to 1500 words.

Although they are often widely used by the majority of the population, throughout their history most pidgins and Creoles have not had any official status in the countries where they are spoken. Most pidgins and Creoles are not written languages, and therefore not standardized.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Which indications does the literary language have?
- 2) What is a territorial dialect?

- 3) What is the difference between Pidgin and Creole languages?
- 4) Is American English a variant of the British one or an accent?
- 5) What is the structure of the Pidgin and Creole languages?

Тема 4. Sociolinguistic patterns

Лекция 4

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются социальные диалекты, взаимосвязь языка и социального класса, стиля, возраста говорящих.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Social dialects
- 2) Language and social class
- 3) Language and style
- 4) Gender, age and language

Ключевые слова: social dialect, social class, stylistic distribution, hypercorrection.

Глоссарий

Convergence – the way of behavior when the speaker makes adjustments depending on whom they are talking to.

Divergence - the way of behavior when the speaker tries to distance from the hearer.

Hypercorrection - the most radical style - shifting, exceeding even the highest status group in use of post - vocalic /r/ in the most formal style.

Jargon – a type of dialect, which is based on aspiration to name common things with the help of new expressive means.

Professional language – the language of people of a certain profession.

Social class - is a set of concepts in the social sciences and political theory centered on models of social stratification in which people are grouped into a set of hierarchical social categories.

Social dialect – dialect that are limited in the sphere of use.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Social dialects

Social dialects are limited in the sphere of usage. The following dialects are defined:

- 1) Professional languages
- 2) Group jargons, which are based on aspiration to name common things with the help of new expressive means
- 3) Conventional languages – lexical systems with secret functions.

Language and social class

It has been known for some time that differences in language are tied to social class. In the 1950s it was suggested that certain lexical and phonological differences in English could be classified as U (upper class) or non-U (lower class), e.g. *serviette* versus *table-napkin*. From the 1960s onwards sociolinguists have turned their

attention to the language of cities, where an increasing proportion of the world's population lives in modern times. Urbanization tends to promote linguistic diversity and regional dialects. As many as 50 different languages may be spoken in parts of the city. Furthermore the rise of urbanization is connected with an increase in social stratification which is reflected in linguistic variation.

Previous investigations had concluded that the speech of New Yorkers appeared to vary in a random and unpredictable manner. Sometimes they pronounce the names *Ian* and *Ann* alike and sometimes they pronounce post - vocalic /r/ in words such as *car* , while at other times they did not. This fluctuation was termed "free variation" because they didn't seem to be any explanation for it. Actually, it was rather conditioned by social factors such as social class, age, sex and style.

Many sociolinguistic studies have started by grouping individuals into social classes on the basis of factors such as education, occupation, income, etc and then looked to see how certain linguistic features were used by each group.

Varieties of English can be divided into two groups with respect to their treatment of this variable: those that are r-pronouncing and those that are not r-pronouncing. Today in Britain accent that have lost post-vocalic /r/ as a result of linguistic change generally have more prestige than those, like Scottish English, that preserve it. In many parts of the United States the reverse is true. The results show that in New York City the lower one's social status, as measured in terms of factors such as occupation, education, and income, the fewer post-vocalic /r/s one uses. The variable (ing) refers to alternation between alveolar /n/ and a velar nasal /ng/ in words with *-ing* ending. The lower a person's social status, the more likely he/she is to use a higher percentage of alveolar rather than velar nasal endings.

The variable (h) refers to alternation between /h/ and lack of /h/ in words beginning with /h/, such as *heart*, *hand*. Unlike RP, most urban accents in England do not have initial /h/ or are variable in their usage of it. The lower a person's social status, the more likely he/she is drop h's. Speakers in the north of English, Scotland, and Ireland retain /h/, as do speakers of American English.

There is of course no reason to assume that every instance of variation in language will correlate with social structure in the same way or to the same extent. Most sociolinguistic variables have a complicated history. Some variables will serve to stratify the population more finely than others; and some cases of variation do not seem to correlate with any external variables.

There is a close relationship between regional and social dialect in both the United States and Britain. More specifically, it appears that working class varieties are more localized. This is especially true in Britain, where those who are at the top of the social scale speak RP, an accent which does not betray the local origin of the speaker, only his/her social status. The nature of the relationship between social and regional varieties needs further investigation since it is likely that it varies considerably in non-Western societies, where differences in social status may be organized differently. For instance, in India we might expect sharp stratification of linguistic features to correlate with caste differences since the castes are named groups, highly stable and rigidly separated one from another. If we compare the Brahmins (the highest class) with non - Brahmins in two cities we can notice that for the non-Brahmins castes the forms are the same regardless of region. This is not true for the highest caste, the Brahmins, who show more variation.

Language and style

The behavior of each social class group varies according to whether its style is casual or formal. Style can range from formal to informal depending on social context, relationship of the participants, social class, sex, age, physical environment, and topic. All groups recognize the overt greater prestige of standard speech and shift towards it in more formal styles.

If we take into account the stylistic distribution of post vocalic /r/ in New York city, we can notice that the highest and lowest groups have the shallowest slopes, but the second highest group in the social hierarchy, the lower middle class, show the most radical style - shifting, exceeding even the highest status group in their use of post - vocalic /r/ in the most formal style. This has been called the "crossover pattern" and is taken to be a manifestation of "hypercorrection". The behaviour of the lower

middle class is governed by their recognition of an exterior standard of correctness and their insecurity about their own speech. In their attempt to adopt the norm of this group, they manifest their aspirations of upward social mobility, but they overshoot the mark. Another type of hypercorrection actually results in the production of forms which are incorrect.

While speakers no doubt pay attention to their speech in some circumstances more than others, they also make adjustments depending on whom they are talking to. This is referred to as "convergence" because one person's speech forms become more similar to those of another. Convergence is a sign of solidarity. There are, however, also occasions on which speakers choose to adopt a divergent style. This has the effect of distancing the speaker from the hearer. For instance, if a Spanish/English bilingual consciously chooses not to switch to English when addressing someone known to be an English monolingual, the bilingual has made a decision not to accommodate to the listener. Young British-born Blacks of Caribbean ancestry who identify with Black culture have deliberately adopted a way of speaking which diverges considerably from that of their White peers. It draws heavily on West Indian Creole forms of speech. When they use this form of speech style, they are dissociating themselves from white mainstream society and its values.

Gender, age and language

There is also a connection between patterns of social stratification and gender. A number of sociolinguistic studies have found that women tend to use higher - status variants more frequently than men. Women tend to hypercorrect more than men, especially in lower middle class. Some researches have argued that in the case of spoken English at least, men's and women's speech are two distinct varieties of language. Many studies arose out of the women's liberation movement and were concerned to show the sexist bias in language.

Sociolinguistic patterns are acquired quite early in some communities. Gender, style and social class differentiation can be found among Scottish school children as young as 6. Many of these children were also aware of the social significance of

variants. The youngest speakers, between the ages of 2 and 16, use more standard forms than the young adults between the ages of 16 and 20.

In a study done of the Gullah Creole spoken in parts of the south eastern United States, older women were the heaviest users of Gullah because they worked in domestic and agricultural positions. Older men work mostly in construction. Younger people of both sexes had more access to white-collar jobs and service positions which brought them into contact with standard English. Younger women were ahead of the younger men in their adoption of a more standard form of English.

Вопросы для самоконтроля:

- 1) What is the social dialect?
- 2) What types of social dialects can be mentioned?
- 3) How are differences in language tied to social class?
- 4) What is hypercorrection?
- 5) When are sociolinguistic patterns acquired?

Тема 5. Language and gender

Лекция 5

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются особенности использования языка мужчинами и женщинами.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Language and gender
- 2) Man-made language
- 3) Learning to talk like a lady

Ключевые слова: gender, women's language, pitch, sexism, gender-differentiated forms.

Глоссарий

Miss – a word traditionally used only for unmarried women.

Ms – a word that is recommended to be used for unmarried and married women.

Missis - a word traditionally used only for married women.

Pitch - is a perceptual property that allows the ordering of sounds on a frequency-related scale.

Mix-sex group – a group where all members are of both sexes.

Single-sex group - a group where all members are of the same sex.

Women's language – the language that is supposed to be spoken only by women.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Language and gender

Women use more standard forms of language than men. While many reasons, such as women's alleged greater status consciousness and concern for politeness, have been put forward to try to explain these results, they have never been satisfactorily accounted for.

For the most part, however, woman's speech has just been ignored. Although one widely quoted linguist believed there was a danger of language becoming languid and insipid if women's ways of speaking prevailed. While practically all linguists would regard these ideas as sexist, even some of the early work of 1970s prompted by the women's movement proposing the existence of "women's language" has been recently criticized by feminists for its sexism. One particularly influential book tried to identify a number of characteristics of women's speech which make women seem as if they were tentative, hesitant, lacking in authority, and trivial. Take, for example, the use of so-called tag questions such as, *It's a nice day, isn't it?* When a tag question is added onto a sentence it leaves open the possibility that others may not agree. Some of the early research claimed that women used more tag questions because they were characteristic of the greater hesitancy of women, who were afraid to assert things without qualification. Another feature which has been associated with women is the use of a high rising tone at the end of an utterance, especially when making statements, which make it sound as if question is being asked. This too was seen as an indication of women's tentativeness and lack of confidence in putting forward their views. When empirical studies were actually conducted to test some of these claims, some found that men actually used more tag questions than women.

Those in a position of authority define the world from their perspective and so it is not surprising that academic disciplines are only male centric but Eurocentric too, since European males have defined the world's civilization in their own terms. Because males have been in power, women and their speech have been measured against male standards and found to be deficient and deviant, just as not too long ago there was a widespread consensus that something was "wrong" with working - class speech, Black speech, etc. But how much of what is believed to be characteristic of women's speech actually is? some of the features thought to be part of "women's language" can be found in use of males when those males are in a subordinate position. Thus, maybe women's language is really "the language of powerlessness"? Women typically use the speech style they do because they are in less powerful position in relation to men. Nevertheless, many feminists now argue that languages

such as English have been literally "man made" and are still primarily under male control. Thus women liberation requires a linguistic liberation.

Interestingly, the idea that women are appendages to men finds a counterpart in many languages such as English, where many feminine occupational terms are formally derived from the male version (*manager / manageress*), and many women's names are diminutives of men's, (*Henriette, Georgette*). Besides we refer to "mankind", not "womankind". But naming practices are social practices and symbolic of an order in which men come first, as can be seen in the conventions followed in expressions going back to *Adam and Eve, man and wife, boys and girls*.

Another area where biology and culture interact can be seen in features of speech such as pitch. On average, men have lower-pitched speaking voices than women. This difference is at least partly anatomical. It has also been observed that women use a wider pitch range than men. This is what gives rise to stereotype that women are more excitable and emotional than men. However, male/female differences in pitch cannot be fully accounted for without reference to social factors. Adult Polish, for instance, have higher-pitched voices than American men. Speakers can also be taught to use pitch levels which are not appropriate to the size and shape of their larynx. For example, Margaret Thatcher undertook training both to lower her average pitch and to reduce her pitch range and was advised to try to maintain a steady pitch to carry her voice through rather than over the noise.

All speakers raise their pitch somewhat in public speaking to make themselves heard, but because most women's voices are already higher pitched than those of men, they have less leeway to raise their pitch before listeners start to perceive them as shrill and emotional. Women have been typically excluded from media positions as announcers and broadcasters because it was thought that their voices lacked authority.

Man - made language

Sexism in language can be demonstrated with many different kinds of evidence. Words of women have negative connotations, even where the corresponding male terms designate the same state of condition for men. Thus, *spinster* and *bachelor* both

designate unmarried adults, but the female term has negative overtones to it. A spinster is more than unmarried^ she is beyond the expected marriage age and therefore seen as rejected and undesirable. No insult is implied if you call a woman an "old man", but to call a man an "old woman" is a decided insult. Where similar terms exist, such as *mother* or *father*, their meanings are different. To say that a woman mothered her children is to draw attention to her nurturing role, but to say that a man fathered a child is to refer only to his biological role in conception. There is no term *working father* because it is redundant.

Because the word *woman* does not share equal status with *man*, terms referring to women have undergone pejoration. If we examine pairs of gender - marked terms such as *lord/lady*, *Sir/Madam*, *master/mistress*, *king/ queen*, *wizard/ witch*, we can see how the female terms may start out on an equal footing, but they become devalued over time. *Lord*, for instance, preserves its original meaning, while *lady* is no longer used exclusively for women in high rank. *Sir* is still used as a title and a form of respect, while a *madam* is one who runs a brothel. To call a man a wizard is a compliment, but not as for the woman who is branded as a witch. In general, it seems that English has many more terms to refer to a sexually promiscuous female than to a sexually promiscuous male. According to one count, there are 220 words for such women, while only twenty for men. Some of the more common derogatory terms applied to men, such as *bastard* and *son of a bitch*, actually degrade women in their role as mothers. Because it is men who make the dictionaries and define meanings, they persistently reserve the position semantic space for themselves and relate women to a negative one.

It is not hard to see why women have been especially sensitive to gender differences in naming practices and forms of address since these are a particularly telling indicator of one's social status. To be referred to as "the Mrs" indicates the inferior status to which men have allocated women. For many men in particular, feminism has been equated with what is perceived as a pointless insistence on the replacement of titles such as *Mrs* and *Miss* with *Ms* and other gender-marked terms such as *busboy* with *busperson*. One press item, for instance, had the title "Death of a

salesperson", another from New Zealand "Gone like the melting person", and still other created terms such as one's upbringing.

In Britain males and females are indicated on student lists by using the initials and last names for the men, while women had the title *Miss* (or *Mrs*) added to their names. This system of marking the females is still used at all levels of society. At Oxford there were only 3 women holding the rank of full professor out of a total of more than 200 professors. The names of men are still given in this way or with a title, followed by a list of degrees and where they were obtained, so that, for instance, a man named John Smith who is professor of modern history would be listed as J.Smith, MA, Ph.D., Professor of Modern History. I and my women colleagues are given a title, either *Miss* or *Mrs*, rather than "Professor" before our names.

Many feminists have pointed out that it is difficult even to trace the history of women because the history of most countries, as Virginia Woolf said in talking about England, is "the history of the male line". Only men have a right to take permanency of their names. Non-reciprocity of address to women is a feature of many societies. Japanese women use more deferential speech levels to their husbands than they receive in return. To take some examples from Western societies, women teachers in some schools in Italy tended to address as *signora* or *signorita*, but men received a title plus their last name.

Women are also more likely than men to be addressed by their first names. Women often protest that male doctors call them by their first names even on the first consultation. Doctors interrupt female patients and female doctors are interrupted more by male patients than male doctors, which suggests that to be a woman is to be a subordinate, no matter what professional level she attained.

Another example of the marking of women can be seen in the use of titles such as *lady/ woman / female doctor*. It is assumed that a doctor is a man, so a woman who is a doctor must somehow be marked as such, which conveys the idea that she is not the "real" thing. Conversely, we have terms such as *male nurse*, where the male has to be marked because the norm is assumed to be female.

English does not require the use of gender-differentiated forms of the definite article and other similar words. Other European languages have two or three so-called "genders", masculine, feminine and neutral. In these languages, however, gender is a grammatical category similar to the four-way classification system for Dyirbal nouns which I discussed in Chapter 1. The fact that a noun is feminine, for instance, is no guarantee that the entity it refers to is feminine. A noun that is classified as feminine in one language might be masculine in another (*das Madchen*). In English, items which are referred to as "she" are in fact feminine in the real world. But, ships, boats, cars, and, until recently, hurricanes were referred to as "she" Such usages reflect the male point of view which dictates that effeminate men are not masculine and that cars and boats, like women, are generally owned and controlled by men, while hurricanes are destructive.

Where gender-differentiated pairs of words exist, such as *dog* and *bitch*, the male term can be taken to include the female. This has been applied to pronouns too. Grammarians tell us that the male pronouns and certain other terms such as *mankind*, *manpower*, *man-made* , and, of course, even *man*, as in *prehistoric man*, encompass women. Male terms used to include females are called "androcentric generics". Grammarians also told us that *everyone should get his hat* was supposed to refer to both men and women, despite the use of the masculine pronoun *his*. In informal English, of course, the alternative, *everybody should get their hat*, existed even though it had been condemned as non-standard. Some feminists have suggested new gender-neutral singular pronouns such as *tey* to replace *she* and *he*, or combining them as *s/he*. Experiments have shown that women feel excluded when they read texts with generic *he*.

Learning to talk like a lady

We are all familiar with the stereotype that women "gossip" and "chatter" while men "talk", but actual research reveals that men talk much more than women across a wide range of contexts, e.g. in husband - wife interaction. TV discussions, meetings. Women are expected to remain silent, so when they do talk, it is noticed and commented upon negatively. The topics that women discuss are different from those

of men, and typical female topics such as child-rearing and personal relationships are seen as trivial. However, these judgments reflect the different social values we have of men and women which define what men do as more important. Actually, nearly half of all discussions undertaken by all-male, all-female, and mixed-sex groups are on topics that had been independently judged as trivial.

Studies have revealed quite different patterns of verbal interaction in all-male and all-female groups, which began in early years when children play in same-sex peer groups. Boys tend to have a larger network than girls, who usually have one or two girlfriends. Girls use language to create cohesiveness, and their activities are generally cooperative and non-cooperative. Differentiation between girls is not made in terms of power. Bossiness tends not to be tolerated, and girls use such forms as "let's", "we'gonna", "we could" to get others to do things, instead of appealing to their personal power. When they argue, girls tend to phrase their arguments in terms of group needs rather than in personal terms. Boys, on the other hand, tend to have more hierarchically organized groups than girls, and status in the hierarchy is paramount. In boys groups speech is used to assert dominance, to attract and maintain an audience when others have the floor. Certain kinds of stylized speech events, such as joking and story telling, are valued in boys groups. High value is placed on obscene language and swearing.

Both boys and girls first learn "women's language" at home and school since their primary caretakers are mothers and female teachers. Children receive some exposure to different gender-appropriate norms even before they come to school. Mothers pay more attention to their male infants. While many pre-school children have consistent notions of what is correct and "incorrect", it is not clear how early they associate "correctness" specifically with female speech. The responses given by the younger children appeared to indicate that they linked sex with topic. Thus, they seemed to think that a man is more likely to say: "Damn, the TV's broken" because it is Daddy who watches TV.

Women do not value aggressiveness and their conversations tend to be more interactional. In all female groups women often discuss one topic for more than a

half-hour. men, however, jump from topic to topic, vying to tell anecdotes about their achievements. They rarely talk about their feelings or their personal problems. There are also differences in how conversations are managed. Women are careful to respect each other's turns and tend to apologize for talking too much. Men compete for dominance, with some men talking a lot more than others. In mixed - sex conversations men interrupt women more, with the result that women are less able to compete their turns at talk and tend to talk less. The responsibility of initiating conversations on topics likely to be of interest to men and keeping them going has been traditionally seen as women's shift.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Which traits of women's speech are thought to be typical?
- 2) Why do female's voices sound more unpleasant than male's?
- 3) How can sexism in language be demonstrated?
- 4) Which patterns of verbal interaction were revealed in all-male and all-female groups?
- 5) Which patterns of verbal interaction were revealed in mix-sex groups?

Тема 6. Language and culture

Лекция 6

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются особенности взаимосвязи языка и культуры, социального круга, основы стандартизации языка.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Cultural influence on the language
- 2) Language and social network
- 3) Standardization

Ключевые слова: universal, national components, social network, standardization.

Глоссарий

Inner form of the word – the direct sense based on the meaning.

National component – a component based on some specific moments in perception of the world.

Non-equivalent vocabulary - vocabulary, which doesn't have exact equivalents in the second language.

Social network – a social encirclement of a person.

Speech etiquette – a microsystem of nationally specific speech formula, accepted by society to make contact or keeping up the conversation.

Standardization - the process converting one variety into a standard by fixing and regulating its spelling, grammar in dictionaries and grammars, which serve as authorities in prescriptive teaching to both native speakers and foreign learners.

Universal component - a component based on some common moments in perception of the world.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Cultural influence on the language

There are universal and national components in each culture, so these components are reflected in the semantics of the language. The universal component is based on some common moments in perception of the world.

The differences between languages based on culture are obvious in phraseology and vocabulary because they are directly connected with extra linguistic reality. Non-equivalent vocabulary, which doesn't have exact equivalent in the second language, mostly represents specific phenomenon. Russian non-equivalent words form 6-7% of every-day Russian speech.

Lexical backgrounds of the corresponding word in two languages are based on different realities. Divergences in lexical background influence subject and syntactic connections of words. The closer ethnic cultures are, the less divergences the languages have.

The differences in culture can be found in the fact that words in different languages, which have common denotative meaning, can differ in connotative semantics. The inner form of the word makes the meaning motivated, but this conditionality isn't complete.

The influence of culture on the language is seen analyzing the forms of the language. In young languages, stylistic differentiation can be in the first stage of development when they have only neutral and every-day styles. Newspaper vocabulary can be close to every-day or official style. Stylistic differentiation is deeper in "old" languages.

The idea that nations perceive the world through the native language has the foundation for "Theory of linguistic relativity".

A standard behavior leads to appearance of standard speech formula attached to a certain situation. So the speech etiquette - a microsystem of nationally specific speech formula, accepted by society to make contact or keeping up the conversation.

Language and social network

There has been some dissatisfaction with class - based approaches to variation because many studies have taken for granted that individuals can be grouped on social classes. Once these groups are established, there is generally no mention of the extent to which these social groups are linguistically homogeneous. We should start with the individual and see what patterns emerge regardless of social class. This kind of sociolinguistic study has emphasized the nature of contact and networks in a society.

Contact between groups in urban society may also accelerate the use of non - standard features and in some cases inhibit change towards the standard. In a study of Puerto Rican speakers in New York City, it emerged that Puerto Ricans who were in contact with Black speakers deleted final t/d more often (fas' train) than Blacks or Whites or Puerto Ricans who did not socialize with Blacks. This makes it clear that the people with whom one interacts are as a powerful source of influence on speech.

Networks may cut across social class boundaries and they may also reveal differences within social classes. A dense network is one in which the people whom a given speaker knows and interacts with also know each other. A multiplex network is one in which the individuals who interact are tied to one another in other ways. For instance lets take two women who live in the same type of housing in the same area of Belfast and have similar employment, nevertheless behave quite differently from one another linguistically. Hannah is much more standard in her speech than Paula. The explanation lies in their socialization patterns, which are clearly very different. Paula, whose speech is more non-standard, is a member of a local bingo-playing group and has extensive kin ties in the area. In fact, she stays at home watching TV. In general, those with high network scores indicating the strength of association with the local community used more local, non-standard forms of speech. Speakers use their local accents as a means of affirming identity and loyalty to local groups.

There is a broad link between network and social class to the extent that middle-class speakers tend to have looser networks than the working class.

Standardization

What we see reflected in sociolinguistic patterns is the uneven distribution of access to the standard variety. The process of standardization converts one variety into a standard by fixing and regulating its spelling, grammar in dictionaries and grammars which serve as authorities in prescriptive teaching to both native speakers and foreign learners. Standardization is not an inherent, but rather an acquired or deliberately and artificially imposed characteristic.

It can be argued with some justification that standardization and standard languages are European inventions. Most of the present-day standard languages of Europe emerged within a climate of intense political nationalism. In England, it was the east Midland dialect of Middle English which emerged as the standard, since the region in which it was used was the most important in the country in terms of its wealth and population (London, Oxford and Cambridge Universities). So what is now a social dialect was once a regional variety of English.

In some countries there are special institutions, such as the Academie francaise in France, which have responsibility for and control over linguistic matters. English is a good example of a standard language without such a regulatory body. In fact, both of the two major Anglophone countries, the United states and Britain, have at one time or another rejected the idea of establishing language academies, preferring instead the vast authority in privately authored dictionaries, such as *Webster's* in the US and the *Oxford English Dictionary* in the UK.

There is usually a great deal of resistance to changes in a standard language, as can be seen by looking at newspapers and magazines, where people often write in to complain about new usages. Standardization depends on the existence of a written form of language. When a language is written, linguistic matters can be subject to regulation in a way they cannot be when a language exists in spoken form only.

English speakers believe that the "true" meanings of words can be found in the dictionaries, despite the fact that our assessment of whether an utterance is true depends on context. Using language successfully at school and later in public life involves a way of thinking about language which has to be taught explicitly.

It is instructive to look at pre-literate societies, where literacy and standardization have been more recently introduced, to see how different languages begin to acquire prestige and others are devalued. Once writing has been introduced into a speech community, the balance of power shifts. The literate become a powerful minority who try to impose their norms of language on others. Subordinate languages are despised languages. From the 16th century the label "barbarous" was applied by speakers of dominant languages to those who spoke subordinate languages.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Which components does every culture have?
- 2) What is non-equivalent vocabulary?
- 3) How does the social network influence the language of the individual?
- 4) How did most of the present-day standard languages of Europe emerge?
- 5) Which regulating bodies are in charge of standardization of the language in the USA, the UK and France?

Тема 7. Language choice

Лекция 7

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются особенности описания языковой ситуации; проблемы, связанные с одновременным функционированием нескольких языков, переход с одного языка на другой при общении.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Language situation
- 2) Societal multilingualism
- 3) Language shift and death

Ключевые слова: language situation, multilingual community, diglossia, language shift, language death.

Глоссарий

Bilingualism – the equal status of two languages.

Code-switching – the process of drawing to differing extent on items which come from more than one language and are combined in different ways.

Diglossia – a situation when each language or variety in a multilingual community serves a specialized function and is used for particular purposes.

Interference - a phenomenon by which a chromosomal crossover in one interval decreases the probability that additional crossovers will occur nearby.

Language death – a process of disappearance of the language.

Language shift – a process of changing the language in communication.

Language situation – a situation that includes all linguistic variants or languages exist in the limits of a certain society (region or state).

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Language situation

It has been estimated that there are some four to five thousand languages in the world but only about 140 nation - states. Probably about half of the world's population is bilingual and bilingualism is present in practically every country in the world. With the formation of new nation - states, the question of which language will become the official national language arises and has often led to bitter controversy. Some countries, such as Canada, are officially bilingual in English and French, although not all Canadians are bilingual. Usually the more powerful groups in any society are able to force their language upon the less powerful. 25 out of 36 of the European countries are officially unilingual. In most of them there are minorities whose languages do not have the same rights as those granted to the official languages.

Language situation includes all linguistic variants or languages exist in the limits of a certain society (region or state).

Language situation is characterized by the following indications:

- 1) a number of linguistic components – multicomponent and one-component;
- 2) a number of ethnic linguistic components – multicomponent unilingual and multicomponent multilingual;
- 3) a percent of population speaking a certain language – balanced and unbalanced;
- 4) a number of communicative functions - communicatively balanced and communicatively unbalanced;
- 5) a juridical status of languages – identical and different;
- 6) a degree of propinquity – closely-related, distantly-related and non-related;
- 7) ethnic roots of prestige languages;
- 8) appreciation of prestige languages – diglossia and non-diglossia.

Societal multilingualism

Self - reports of language usage are subject to variance in relation to factors such as prestige, ethnically, political affiliation. Even where these factors are not present to a great degree, a respondent and census taker may not share the same ideas about what terms like "mother tongue", "home language". Usually censuses do not

recognize that an individual might have more than one "mother tongue", or that the language learned first might not be the language best mastered. Usually the term "mother tongue" evokes the notion of mothers as the passive repositories of languages. In some communities, however, fathers transmit their language to their kids.

Even in nations with a lesser incidence of multilingualism there can be problems of definition in deciding what counts as a "language" or "dialect". Within France the term "bilingual" is usually applied only to persons who are able to handle two languages. Thus, a Frenchman who spoke Breton and French would not be considered bilingual because Breton is of low status and considered a patois rather than a language.

In research on the Puerto Rican community in NY, sociolinguists arrived at a list of 5 domains in which either Spanish or English was used consistently: family, friendship, religion, education and employment. A domain is an abstraction which refers to sphere of activity representing a combination of specific times, settings, and role relationships. The most likely place for Spanish was the family domain, followed by friendship, religion, employment and education. An earlier study of Japanese/English bilinguals in the US highlighted a similar phenomenon. Speech was disrupted when the bilinguals were asked to speak in English about Japanese topics to Japanese interlocutors.

In each domain there may be pressures of various kinds (economic, cultural, administrative), which influence the bilingual towards use of one language rather than the other. The administrative policies of some countries may require civil servants to have knowledge of a second language. Languages like Greek and Latin have great prestige as second languages of the educated (French in pre-Revolutionary Russia as well). A bilingual may learn one of the languages for religious reasons.

Often each language or variety in a multilingual community serves a specialized function and is used for particular purposes. This situation is known as diglossia. An example can be taken from Arabic - speaking countries such as Egypt in which the language used at home may be a local version of Arabic. The language that is

recognized publicly, however is modern standard Arabic. the High (H) and Low (L) varieties differ not only in grammar, phonology, vocabulary, but also with respect to a number of social characteristics, namely functions, prestige, literary heritage, acquisition, standardization and stability. L is typically acquired at home as a mother tongue and continues to be used throughout life. Its main uses are in familiar and familiar interactions. H is learned later through schooling and never at home. H is related to and supported by institutions outside the home.

Diglossic societies are marked not only by this compartmentalization of varieties, but also by restriction of access. Entry to formal institutions such as school and government requires knowledge of H. Speakers regard H as superior to L in a number of respects. In some cases H is regarded as the only "real" language to the extent that speakers claim they do not speak L. Sometimes the alleged superiority is avowed for religious or literary reasons. There is also a strong tradition of formal grammatical study and standardization associated with H.

Diglossia both with and without bilingualism may be a relatively stable, long-term arrangement, depending on circumstances. As an example we can take Hasidic Jews in the US, who maintain stable diglossia with bilingualism. English is specifically excluded from home and religious use. It encroaches only in a limited way in economic domains.

Language shift and death. Code - switching

Stability, however, is a subjective notion. there are many bilingual situations which do not last for more than three generations. Immigrant languages have disappeared as their speakers have adopted the language of the new environment. Speakers often are unable to establish the compartmentalization necessity for survival of the L variety. In such instances a shift to another language may be unavoidable.

Many attempts to increase the domains of use for a Low variety fail, such as in Ireland, where there was no widespread knowledge of the classical written variety, and decreasing use of the spoken language. In Israel, However, the revival of Hebrew has been successful. There the task was to take a language which was widely known in its written form, and to add to it vernacular use and a native speaking community.

As for the US and Australia new wave of immigrants has seen the decline of their language. In Australia the decline of non-English languages has been similarly dramatic. In North America native languages have undergone extreme shift since first contact with Europeans. From a global perspective, the trend is the same. Many smaller languages are dying out due to the spread of a few world languages. It has been estimated that 70% of world's population speak 11 languages.

Language shift involves bilingualism as a stage on the way to eventual monolingualism in a new language. If we take the Australian Village of Oberwart we can see, that villagers, who were formerly Hungarian monolinguals, have over past few hundred years become increasingly bilingual, and now the community is in the process of a shift to German. Oberwart is located near the present-day border of Austria and Hungary and has been surrounded by German - speaking villages for at least 400 years. All the Hungarian speakers are bilingual in German and are peasant agricultures. The difference in choice between German and Hungarian reflects the social contrast between modern urban worker and traditional peasant. Young women were spearheading the change from Hungarian to German. Although young people in general used more German than older people, young women used more German than men. The women's choice of German can be seen as a linguistic expression of their rejection of peasant life. However, it could be that speakers regularly change their patterns of language choice as they get older, so that in each generation young people use more German and then switch to Hungarian when they get older.

In some cases shift occurs as a result of immigration to a place where it is not possible to maintain one's native language. The ultimate loss of a language is termed "language death". Many factors are responsible for language shift and death: religious and educational background, settlement patterns, ties with the homeland, extent of exogamous marriage, attitudes of majority and minority language groups and so on. Where large groups of immigrants concentrate in particular geographic areas, they are often better able to preserve their language.

The inability of minorities to maintain the home as an intact domain for the use of their language has often been decisive for language shift. There is a high rate of

loss in mixed marriages. In some cases speakers may be forbidden to use their own language altogether (the Kurds in Turkey). In a community whose language is under threat, it is difficult for children to acquire the language fully.

Let's take the examples: *Have agua, please* (Spanish/ English bilingual child "Have water, please"); *Kodomotachi liked it* (Japanese/English bilingual: the children liked it). It can be seen that all these utterances draw to differing extent on items which come from more than one language and which is combined in different ways. This phenomenon is called "code - switching". There seems to be principal way to decide whether the child is speaking English, but with Spanish words inserted or vice versa. All one can say that the child's lexicon is drawn from more than one language, while the grammar is still in the early development stages. It follows the rules of neither monolingual Spanish nor monolingual English grammar.

Switching should occur at points where the surface structures of two languages map onto each other. This means that a language switch ought to take place only at boundaries common to both languages, and switching should not occur between any two sentence elements unless they are normally ordered in the same way/ The more similar two languages are structurally, the more switching sites they should permit.

In an early study conducted in a rural Norwegian village called Hemnesberget the concepts of "metaphorical" and "transactional" switching were introduced (sometimes referred to as non-situational versus situational code - switching). Transactional switching comes under the heading of the type of switching most commonly discussed as being controlled by components of the speech event like topic and participants. When residents in Hemnesberget step up to the counter at the post office, greetings and inquiries about family members tend to be exchanged in the local dialect, while the business part of the transaction (buying stamps) is carried out in standard Norwegian. Metaphorical code - switching, however, concerns the various communicative effects the speaker intends to convey. For example, teachers deliver formal lectures in the official standard form of Norwegian, but lecturers shift to regional Norwegian dialect when they want to encourage discussion among the students.

A speaker may switch for a variety of reasons, for example to redefine the interaction as appropriate to different social arena, or to avoid, through continual code switching, defining the interaction in terms of any social arena. It can be used as a strategy of a neutrality or as a means to explore which code is most appropriate and acceptable in a particular situation. In many government offices in Canada, it is customary for employees to answer the telephone by saying "bonjour, hello" in order to give the caller the opinion of choosing either language to continue the conversation.

Linguistic diversity occurs in monolingual speech communities too. The most substantial body of work which is unequivocally thought of as sociolinguistic in the research on urban social dialects, particularly in the English-speaking world.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Which indications characterize a language situation?
- 2) What is diglossia?
- 3) When does language shift take place?
- 4) What is the code switching?
- 5) Why is language stability a subjective notion?

Тема 8. Language policy

Лекция 8

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются особенности формирования языковой политики, критерии выбора государственного языка, социальные проблемы как результат лингвистических проблем.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Official (state) language
- 2) Linguistic problems and social problems

Ключевые слова: language policy, official language, language law, discrimination, immersion, submersion.

Глоссарий

Assimilation model – an educational model that leads to proper linguistic assimilation of immigrants.

Immersion – the program that results in additive bilingualism.

Language policy - deliberate influence of the state on the process of language functioning in society on a certain administrative territory.

Neutral language – a language that is chosen as a state language, being not native for people in the country.

State (official) language – a language that is given a special legal status in a particular country, state, or other jurisdiction.

Submersion – the program when the second language undermines proficiency in the first.

Subordinate language – a language that is spoke in a particular country but isn't given a special legal status.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Official (state) language

Language policy – deliberate influence of the state on the process of language functioning in society on a certain administrative territory. A language policy consists of the following items: the choice and position of the official language; the position of subordinate languages; standardization; working out of the alphabet.

The following criteria are taken into account:

- 1) Autochthons of the nation.
- 2) A number of people speaking the language.
- 3) Prestige of the language.
- 4) Neutrality of the language.
- 5) A certain number of educated people speaking the language.

Linguistic problems as societal problems

Language has often been cited as the main cause for the greater rate of school failure among minority children. In Britain, for example, indigenous middle – class children do best, while children of West Indian origin do worst. In the US Grade 12 Hispanic students are about three and half a year behind national norms in academic achievements. After leaving school, these minorities also have a greater chance of being unemployed than indigenous children. This is reflected in the fact that ethnic minorities are over – represented in almost every category that can be used to measure educational, psychological, economical and social failure (rates of crime and so on). The indiscriminate use of psychological tests on newly arrived immigrants to the US in the early part of this century resulted in the deportation of persons who were assessed to be feeble - minded, largely because they did not understand English.

Because schools measure success in terms of mastery of standard English, non - standard speech is seen as illogical, and bilingualism as a problem. It was not too long ago that minority children were subjected to physical violence in school for

speaking their home language. Much of early literature appeared to indicate that bilingualism exerted a negative influence on children's development.

The Ann Arbor decision on Black English in the US in 1979 is an example of litigation brought under Equality of Opportunity legislation, which actually makes no mention of language. It guarantees simply that no one shall be denied equal educational opportunity on account of race colour, sex, national origin. Black parents in Ann Arbor, Michigan, filed a suit against the school board for failure to take into account the linguistic background of their children.

The issue of language, in particular the autonomy of Black English, became salient in this case because it was argued that a language group (Black English) coincided with racial group. The Ann Arbor case probably couldn't have occurred or been won without the research done on social dialects, which supported the argument that Black English was not a deficient, but only different linguistic system.

After the US federal Government passed the Bilingual Educational act of 1968, over \$7 million were appropriated for 1969-70 to support educational programs which were aimed at the special educational needs of children of "limited English - speaking ability". But this act didn't place individual schools under any legal obligation to do this. Litigation brought to the courts on behalf of various groups of minority students led in some cases to court - mandated bilingual education programs. After several trials in 1971 a document was produced, which directed school boards to identify students with a primary or home language other than English. Elementary school children were to be taught in their dominant language until they were able to benefit from instruction entirely in English.

In 1975 the US Rights Task Force examined a number of school systems and it was stated that the actual number of children who presently receive bilingual education represents only a quarter of the population for whom it is intended. And in 1983 President Reagan proposed to cut the federal budget for bilingual education under the influence of negative views on bilingual education of common people.

There are two main types of programs: immersion and submersion. Immersion programs usually result in additive bilingualism. They seek to add a second language

without threatening the first. The child's native language is intact and develops, even though the child has not had the same amount of instruction as its monolingual peers in majority - language schools. Most of the positive results of bilingualism have been obtained by researches in Canada from the kind of acquisition context. In submersion programs a second language gradually undermines proficiency in the first. The negative results for bilingualism (lower IQ, poorer achievements in language tests) have been obtained in connection with submersion-type programs.

The traditional assimilationist model of transitional bilingualism can be found in Sweden. The most common provides instruction in Swedish in ordinary Swedish classes. There may be supplementary tuition in Swedish or the mother tongue. Teaching of and in the mother tongue is, however, voluntary. There is also an option whereby a child attends classes with one Swedish teacher and one immigrant teacher. These are called cooperative classes. The groups (natives and immigrants) are taught separately, each by its own teacher through the medium of the native language for part of the time, and then in Swedish together with the other children for the rest of the time. In practice the amount of mother tongue teaching is limited and decreases gradually because the aim is that by Grade 4, the immigrant children should be able to be taught in Swedish only. There is also a possibility of attending classes where the instruction is done mainly through the medium of the mother tongue with Swedish as a second language.

We have seen that the term "bilingual education" can mean different things in different contexts. The traditional policy is considered to be eradication of the native language and assimilation into the majority one.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Which items does language policy consist of?
- 2) Which criteria are taken into account when the official language is chosen?
- 3) Why was the language cited as the main cause for school failure among minority children?
- 4) Analyze two main types of assimilation program.
- 5) Where is the traditional assimilation model found?

Тема 9. Tatarstan. Language choice

Лекция 9

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются факторы развития двуязычия в Татарстане, особенности развития двуязычия в Татарстане.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Factors influencing bilingualism in Tatarstan
- 2) Peculiarities of bilingualism in Tatarstan.

Ключевые слова: bilingualism, Tatarstan, Russia, diglossia, Tatars, international communication.

Глоссарий

Borrowing – the words, which don't have equivalents in the second language.

Christened Tatars – Tatars who became Christians.

Diglossia - a situation when each language or variety in a multilingual community serves a specialized function and is used for particular purposes.

Language Law in Tatarstan – the law passed in 1992 that stated the official status of two languages (Russian and Tatar)

Language situation - a situation that includes all linguistic variants or languages exist in the limits of a certain society (region or state).

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Factors influencing bilingualism in Tatarstan

Bilingualism in Tatarstan was influenced by the following factors:

1) Polytechnic population

The traces of constant residence of Russians can be found even in the 14th century. In the 16th century in Tatarstan lived 6,5 million of Tatars and 5 million of Russian.

2) Conversion into Christianity.

In 1552 the population was partly converted into Christianity by means of the following: Tatars were forced out of the city, orthodox churches were built. In 1740 “christened Tatars” had to go to church and spoke Russian.

3) Revolutions. Revolts. Wars

These events united people of different nationalities. For example, in 1941 Moscow factories were moved to Tatarstan.

4) International marriages.

71% of international families speak Russian, 17% - Tatar, the rest – both languages.

5) Education

In 1867, seven church schools for “christened Tatars” were established. Tatar system of education had 3 stages of development at the beginning of the 20th century:

- 1890 – 1910 (Tatar confessional schools were turned into schools of general education);

- 1910- 1917 (struggle for autonomous educational system with Russian as the second language);

- 1917-1930 (Soviet schools with compulsory study of Tatar).

In 1990, the number of pupils receiving education in Tatar was small (24%).

6) Radio. TV. Press.

7) Linguistic factor

Tatar is considered easier to study than Russian.

Peculiarities of bilingualism in Tatarstan

Language situation in Tatarstan:

1) Three main ethnic groups are distinguished: Ugro-Finnic, Russian, Turkic.

2) The number of people speaking the languages. In 1992 Tatars made up 48,5% of population, Russian - 43,3%.

3) According to official data both languages are prestigious.

4) Spheres of use. Tatar is not used in all spheres of life.

The stages of development of bilingualism in Tatarstan:

1) Diglossia without bilingualism

In 9-12th centuries two languages interacted through wars, marriages, economy.

Tatar was poly functional and official.

2) Diglossia and bilingualism

After 1552 Russian influenced Tatar mostly through written documents. In 1785, in the dictionary the following borrowings were fixed: administrative terms, positions and estates, factories and transport, agricultural terms, military terms, objects of every-day use.

Russian was the state language fixed juridically.

3) Bilingualism without diglossia

In 1918, a resolution about national schools was passed. Ethnic minorities could study in their native language. In 1919, all illiterate people had to study their native language.

In 1927 Tatar was converted into Roman alphabet.

4) Bilingualism and diglossia

In 1939, Tatar was converted into Cyrillic alphabet. Russian became the international language. In 1958, pupils moved from Tatar schools into the Russian ones. Tatar wasn't widely used till 90s. Only 42% of Tatars spoke their native language fluently.

5) Bilingualism without diglossia

In 1992, the law was passed which guaranteed the rights regardless the language spoken. Now 98% of pupils study Tatar, 90% of Tatars can speak their language, but only 50% use it in every-day speech.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Which factors influence bilingualism in Tatarstan?
- 2) Describe language situation in Tatarstan.
- 3) Which stages did the development of bilingualism pass in Tatarstan?

Тема 10. Language evolution

Лекция 10

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются факторы развития двуязычия в Татарстане, особенности развития двуязычия в Татарстане.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Languages of the early states
- 2) Languages of the Middle Ages

Ключевые слова: language family, tree, Middle Ages, branch of the language

Глоссарий

Arcanum – deep secret wisdom

Finno-Ugric language family - the language family which gave rise to modern Finnish and Hungarian.

Greek-Armenian-Indo-Iranian language community – the branch of the Anatolian family.

Holy Writ - the texts, which various religious traditions consider to be sacred, or central to their religious tradition.

Middle Ages- the period of European history that, lasted from the 5th to the 15th century

Protolanguage – the ultimate ancestor of the European languages.

Sanskrit - is the primary Sacred language of Hinduism, a philosophical language in Hinduism, Buddhism, and Jainism, and a literary language that was in use as *alingua franca* in Greater India.

Tocharian – the language family that diverged from the Indo-European protolanguage quite early.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Languages of early states

Linguistics, the scientific study of language, can reach more deeply into the human past than the most ancient written records. It compares related languages to reconstruct their ultimate ancestor, or protolanguage. The science developed from the study of the Indo-European superfamily of languages, by far the largest in number of languages and number of speakers. Nearly half of the world's population speaks an

Indo-European language as a first language; English, French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish--belong to this superfamily.

Over the past 200 years, linguists have reconstructed the vocabulary and syntax of the postulated Indo-European protolanguage with increasing confidence and insight. They have tried to unravel the paths by which the language broke into daughter languages that spread throughout Eurasia, seeking at the origin of those paths the homeland of the protolanguage itself. The early investigators placed the homeland in Europe and posited migratory paths by which the daughter languages evolved into clearly defined Eastern or Western branches. It showed, that protolanguage originated more than 6,000 years ago in eastern Anatolia and that some daughter languages must have differentiated in the course of migrations that took them first to the East and later to the West.

Early studies of Indo-European languages focused on those most familiar to the original European researchers: the Italic, Celtic, Germanic, Baltic and Slavic families. Affinities between these and the "Aryan" languages spoken in faraway India were noticed by European travelers as early as the 16th century. That they might all share a common ancestor was first proposed in 1786 by Sir William Jones, an English jurist and student of Eastern cultures. He thus launched what came to be known as the Indo-European hypothesis, which served as the principal stimulus to the founders of historical linguistics in the 19th century.

The words described a landscape and climate that linguists originally placed in Europe between the Alps in the south and the Baltic and North seas in the north. More recent evidence now places the probable origin of the Indo-European language in western Asia –scientists decoded manuscripts in close to a dozen ancient languages from sites in modern Turkey and Turkistan. The landscape described by the protolanguage as now resolved must lie somewhere in the crescent that curves around the southern shores of the Black Sea, south from the Balkan peninsula, east across ancient Anatolia (today the non-European territories of Turkey) and north to the Caucasus. Here the Indo-Europeans founded villages and city-states from which,

about 6,000 years ago, they began their migrations over the Eurasian continent and into history.

The appearance of Hittite and other Anatolian languages at the turn of the third to the second millennium B.C. sets an absolute chronological limit for the breakup of the Indo-European protolanguage. Because the Anatolian protolanguage had already separated into daughter languages, investigators estimate that it departed from the parent Indo-European no later than the fourth millennium B.C. and possibly much earlier.

This inference is supported by what is known about the portion of the Indo-European community that remained after the Anatolian family had broken away. From that community came the languages that persisted into written history. The first to branch off was the Greek-Armenian-Indo-Iranian language community. It must have begun to do so in the fourth millennium B.C. because by the middle of the third millennium B.C. the community was already dividing into two groups, namely, the Indo-Iranian and the Greek-Armenian. Tablets in the Hattusas archives show that by the middle of the second millennium B.C. the Indo-Iranian group had given rise to a language spoken in the Mitanni kingdom on the southeast frontier of Anatolia that was already different from ancient Indian (*commonly called Sanskrit*) and ancient Iranian. Cretan- Mycenaean texts from the same eras as Mitanni, deciphered in the early 1950's by the British scholars Michael G. F. Ventris and John Chadwick, turned out to be in a previously unknown dialect of Greek. All these languages had gone their separate ways from Armenian.

Tocharian was another language family that diverged from the Indo-European protolanguage quite early. Tocharian is one of the more recently discovered Indo-European languages, first recognized in the early decades of the 20th century in texts from Chinese Turkistan. Not long ago, the British scholar W. N. Henning suggested that the Tocharians can be identified with the Gutians, who are mentioned in Babylonian cuneiform inscriptions (in Akkadian, a Semitic language) dating from the end of the third millennium B.C., when King Sargon was building the first great Mesopotamian Empire. If Henning's views are correct, the Tocharians would be the

first Indo-Europeans to appear in the recorded history of the ancient Near East. Lexical affinities of Tocharian with Italo-Celtic give evidence that the speakers of the two language families had associated in the Indo-European homeland before the Tocharian began migration eastward.

Speakers of the Hittite, Luwian and other Anatolian languages made relatively small migrations within the homeland, and their languages died there with them. The more extensive migrations of speakers of the Greek- Armenian-Indo-Iranian dialects began with the breakup of the main Indo- European language community in the third millennium B.C. Two groups of Indo-Iranian speakers made their way East during the second millennium B.C.

The second group of Indo-Iranians, who followed a more southerly path into the Indus Valley, spoke a dialect from which the historical languages of India are descended. Their earliest literary ancestor is embodied in the *Rig Veda* hymns, written in an ancient variant of Sanskrit. The indigenous peoples of the Indus Valley, known from the archaeological discoveries at their capital Mohenjo-Daro, were apparently displaced by the Indo-Iranians. After the separation of the Indo-Iranians and their departure for the east, the Greek-Armenian community remained for a time in the homeland. There, judging by the numbers of loan words, they had contact with speakers of Kartvelian, Tocharian and the ancient Indo-European languages that later evolved into the historical European languages.

The historical European languages, those that left literary remains, provide evidence that the dialects from which they descended had found their way into central Asia along with the Tocharians. These languages have many words in common. An example is the word for "salmon," once regarded as a weighty argument for a homeland in northern Europe. Salmon abounded in the Baltic rivers of Europe, and the word *lox* (German *Lachs*) in the Germanic languages is perhaps echoed by *lak-* in Hindu, for a lacquer of a pink color that evokes the color of salmon flesh. One species of salmon, *Salmo trutta*, is found in the streams of the Caucasus, and the *lak-* root denotes "fish" in earlier and later forms of Tocharian as well as in the ancient European languages.

The migration of the speakers of some of the early Indo-European dialects into central Asia is established by loan words from the Finno-Ugric language family, which gave rise to modern Finnish and Hungarian. Under the influence of Finno-Ugric, Tocharian underwent a complete transformation of its system of consonants.

Languages of the Feudal Age

The first state formations appear approximately at the point, when the national letter appears (is invented or is more often adopted to the sound system of a language). Private property appears, the division of labour in society deepens and instead of usual law and the court of patriarchs come written laws and professional institutes of authority.

The following peculiar features of the feudal age are usually accentuated:

1. In the Middle Ages for the language situations a special kind of cultural bilingualism is characteristic. On the one hand they form a language of religion and bookish-literary culture (which is close to religion), and on the other hand, the local (national) language, which serves for everyday communication (the latter also concerns partially the written kind of communication). This treat of the language situations is also connected with the prevalence of religious world outlook in the Middle Ages, the existence of world religions, unconventional interpretation of sign.

2. In the history of language situations the feudal epoch is the peak of dialectal discrepancy and isolation. This is how weakness of economic relationships owing to the natural economy, general settlement of lifestyle are reflected in language. Intensive migration of primeval tribes stopped; states with more stable boundaries appeared. The frontiers of numerous dialects coincided with the frontiers of feudal districts. Later on their basis national (ethnic) languages are formed.

3. Of the feudal age complex hierarchy and strict regulation, species of ceremony of bookish-literary communication, are typical. These are the features of the feudal society itself - in its complicated and conservative social structure; elaborate etiquette of relationships between people; system of aesthetic rules, conventions, norms of decency. The literary etiquette of a medieval writer is said to consist of the following:

- 1) of the conception about how this or that event should happen;
- 2) of the idea how the doer should act according to his or her position;
- 3) of the notion about the words to describe the event.

Therefore, here we have the etiquette of the world, the etiquette of behaviour, the lexical etiquette. This all is joined into one standard system, which is somehow long established and stands behind the author. He varies the literary canons, changes them depending on his apprehension of "literary decency".

4. In comparison with modern culture the Middle Ages are far more attentive to the word. This is the feature of cultures, developed on the basis of the religions of the Holy Writ. The scribes of the Middle Ages thought the word the key to understanding the mysteries of entity, written down in the sacred texts. In the human ability to record and read a text they saw an intriguing Arcanum, which reveals the essence of a man. In the sound composition of a word, in its graphic peculiarities, in the inner sense of constituent morphemes they searched for the reflection of the essence of things.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) What does the term "protolanguage" mean?
- 2) Where do the speakers of the protolanguage live?
- 3) Where was Tocharian used?
- 4) What is characteristic for cultural bilingualism in the Middle Ages?
- 5) Why is the feudal epoch the peak of dialectal discrepancy?

Глоссарий

Aesthetic function - aesthetic attitude to the language.

American English – a variant of the British English used in the USA.

Assimilation model – an educational model that leads to proper linguistic assimilation of immigrants.

Arcanum – deep secret wisdom.

Bilingualism – the equal status of two languages.

Borrowing – the words, which don't have equivalents in the second language.

Christened Tatars – Tatars who became Christians.

Code-switching – the process of drawing to differing extent on items which come from more than one language and are combined in different ways.

Cognitive function - the language preserves and transfers the information.

Communicative competence - the conventions the members of speech community share about their speech variety.

Communicative function – language is a means of communication.

Contact-making function - the language is used only to make a contact.

Convergence – the way of behavior when the speaker makes adjustments depending on whom they are talking to.

Creole language – the language that comes from Pidgin and has its own native speakers.

Diglossia – a situation when each language or variety in a multilingual community serves a specialized function and is used for particular purposes.

Divergence - the way of behavior when the speaker tries to distance from the hearer.

Emotional function - presentation of emotions in the speech.

Finno-Ugric language family - the language family which gave rise to modern Finnish and Hungarian.

Greek-Armenian-Indo-Iranian language community – the branch of the Anatolian family.

Holy Writ - the texts, which various religious traditions consider to be sacred, or central to their religious tradition.

Hypercorrection - the most radical style - shifting, exceeding even the highest status group in use of post - vocalic /r/ in the most formal style.

Immersion – the program that results in additive bilingualism.

Inner form of the word – the direct sense based on the meaning.

Interference - a phenomenon by which a chromosomal crossover in one interval decreases the probability that additional crossovers will occur nearby.

Jargon – a type of dialect, which is based on aspiration to name common things with the help of new expressive means.

Language death – a process of disappearance of the language.

Language Law in Tatarstan – the law passed in 1992 that stated the official status of two languages (Russian and Tatar).

Language policy - deliberate influence of the state on the process of language functioning in society on a certain administrative territory.

Language shift – a process of changing the language in communication.

Language situation – a situation that includes all linguistic variants or languages exist in the limits of a certain society (region or state).

Lexifier language – the language from which the bulk of lexicon is taken when Pidgin is formed.

Literary language – the language that is characterized by the following features: worked out, fixed, stable, compulsory for the nation.

Macro-sociolinguistics – a branch of science, which takes society as its starting point and deals with language as a pivotal factor in the organization of communities.

Middle Ages- the period of European history that, lasted from the 5th to the 15th century.

Micro-sociolinguistics - – a branch of science, which begins with language and treats social forces as essential factors influencing the structure of languages.

Miss – a word traditionally used only for unmarried women.

Ms – a word that is recommended to be used for unmarried and married women.

Missis - a word traditionally used only for married women.

Mix-sex group – a group where all members are of both sexes.

National component – a component based on some specific moments in perception of the world.

Neutral language – a language that is chosen as a state language, being not native for people in the country. Non-equivalent vocabulary - vocabulary, which doesn't have exact equivalents in the second language.

Pidgin - a kind of mixed language, which appears when people have a necessity to communicate and they have different native language.

Pitch - is a perceptual property that allows the ordering of sounds on a frequency-related scale

Professional language – the language of people of a certain profession.

Protolanguage – the ultimate ancestor of the European languages.

Regulative function - regulation of behavior of the listener.

Sanskrit - is the primary Sacred language of Hinduism, a philosophical language in Hinduism, Buddhism, and Jainism, and a literary language that was in use as *lingua franca* in Greater India.

Single-sex group - a group where all members are of the same sex.

Situational analysis – special method of sociolinguistic analysis, which is aimed at planning the speech according to certain rules.

State (official) language – a language that is given a special legal status in a particular country, state, or other jurisdiction.

Social class - is a set of concepts in the social sciences and political theory centered on models of social stratification in which people are grouped into a set of hierarchical social categories.

Social dialect – dialect that are limited in the sphere of use.

Social network – a social encirclement of a person.

Sociolinguistics - a branch of linguistics, which is devoted to social conventionality of developing and functioning of the language

Speech community - a social group who claim a variety as their own and maintain its distinctiveness from the varieties spoken by their neighbours.

Speech etiquette – a microsystem of nationally specific speech formula, accepted by society to make contact or keeping up the conversation.

Standardization - the process converting one variety into a standard by fixing and regulating its spelling, grammar in dictionaries and grammars, which serve as authorities in prescriptive teaching to both native speakers and foreign learners.

Submersion – the program when the second language undermines proficiency in the first.

Subordinate language – a language that is spoke in a particular country but isn't given a special legal status.

Territorial dialect – a form of the language limited in territory.

Tocharian – the language family that diverged from the Indo-European protolanguage quite early.

Universal component - a component based on some common moments in perception of the world.

Women's language – the language that is supposed to be spoken only by women.

Вопросы к зачету

1. Language, society and reality. Communicative competence
2. Sociolinguistics. Methods of the science
3. Functions of the language
4. Literary language
5. Territorial dialects

6. Pidgin and Creole
7. Social dialects.
8. Language and style, age, social network.
9. Standardization.
10. Language and gender
11. Language choice
12. Language shift and death
13. Official languages.
14. Peculiarities of bilingualism in Tatarstan.
15. History of bilingualism in the Republic.
16. The languages of the early states.
17. Linguistic situation in the Middle ages.

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